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other hand, the forest operations near the Paraná carried on entirely by the great tannic acid combines possessed of large capital and owning great factories. The latter draw their labor from the left bank of the river and use the quebracho wood almost entirely for the extraction of the tannin. In this belt the land tends to get into the hands of a smaller number of owners each year, and in the province of Santa Fé the entire forest is divided between two companies. The author expects that the Chaco forest will eventually disappear and give place to cattle ranches.

Of Misiones with its forest life we have a brief but satisfactory picture: the lumbering in the Araucaria woods; the *maté* industry, with its serflike labor, which may be compared to the rubber gathering of the Amazons; and the small agricultural settlements in the clearings.

Chapters 5 and 6, on Patagonia and the Pampas respectively, are perhaps the most satisfactory part of the book from a geographical standpoint. They are much more systematic in their treatment and are so rich in content that they should be carefully read by all geographers. The physical conditions are never lost sight of. In each region they are sufficiently well-known to permit of a subdivision into what are probably the real human geographical provinces, each with its distinct and fairly well-established mode of life. The Pampas chapter is a specially good example of a study of this kind.

Chapter 7 describes the main roads and railways in the Republic, sketching their setting, their development, and the economic basis of their traffic; while Chapter 8 deals with the waterways in similar fashion. In the latter chapter is included a physical description of the Paraná and Uruguay systems which is lucid and thorough. The work concludes with a chapter on the population, its distribution and its movements, the sites and character of the cities, leading up to a sketch of the personality of Buenos Aires.

As we may hope that the work will speedily run into a new edition, it may be useful to point out a fault which can be easily remedied. The maps, seven in number, are insufficient. They were doubtless limited by the cost, but the publisher would be well advised to allow more scope in this matter. To take but two instances: the detailed description of the Paraná, with its changing meanders, and the account of the contours in the pampas are greatly impaired by complete lack of illustration. But the existing maps would be doubly useful if placed at the end of the book so as to fold out, and if references to them were given in the text. There is not a line on these diagrams that is not essential. The work contains an exceedingly useful bibliography with critical annotations.

THE BRITISH WEST INDIES IN RELATION TO THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

F. W. PITMAN. **The Development of the British West Indies, 1700-1763.** xiv and 495 pp.; map, diagrs., bibliogr., index. (Yale Historical Publications: Studies, IV.) Yale University Press, New Haven, 1917. \$2.50. 8½ x 6 inches.

As in most modern wars, economic causes lay back of the American Revolution. Questions of trade were almost as important a factor in bringing about that conflict as were political rights and liberties. The present volume, in addition to treating of the development of social life, the distribution of land holdings, the labor problems encountered, and the financial systems in vogue in the West Indies, presents a carefully detailed account of some of the economic conditions which contributed to the separation of the North American colonies from Great Britain. The work is based chiefly upon manuscripts found in the British Museum and the Public Record Office.

The exchange of commodities between North America and the West Indies Islands figured prominently among these economic factors. These two regions were geographically complementary. In climate and soil, hence in their products, they were sharply contrasted. The typical productions of New England, such as grain, lumber, fish, and horses, together with the limited output of incipient Yankee manufacture, barrel staves, hoops, boards, and shingles, found their nearest and most natural market in the tropical colonies that stretched from the Bermudas to Surinam, while the rapidly growing settlements along the North Atlantic coast offered a ready emporium for a large part of the sugar which was almost the sole product of the West Indies. But this trade, based on geographical dissimilarity of the two regions, refused entirely to recognize the artificial boundaries established by political sovereignty. Such a condition was not at all in keeping with the commercial policies prevailing in Europe; hence England and France, the mother countries most

directly concerned, attempted to restrict colonial trade within the bounds of their own possessions. Here geographical laws of trade clashed with those of political legislation. The latter were largely ignored, and illicit commerce flourished, in spite of attempted enforcement of restrictive measures. None of the legislation, culminating in the "Molasses Act" of 1733, all of which aimed to prevent trade between British colonies and foreign markets, was able to divert commerce from these natural channels which ruthlessly crossed political boundaries.

So strong were these geographical laws of trade that, in spite of all legislation to the contrary, commercial relations between these climatically complementary regions became too deeply entrenched to yield even in times of war. During the Seven Years' War, when the two European powers were in conflict, and even when the conflagration extended to their respective New World possessions, the colonies continued to exchange their wares. Civil and naval measures were alike fruitless. In fact the British colonists, though their royal governors sought to check this trade, were, as a people, thoroughly convinced that their interests lay in maintaining direct commercial relations with their West Indian clients of whatever nationality they might be. Thus entered the wedge which rapidly brought about a complete rupture between the people of the thirteen colonies and the government of the mother country.

Since the one product of the West Indies was sugar (with its by-products of molasses and rum), this history reveals, too, how important a rôle was played by a single commodity in the political relations of the British Empire at that time. Just as cotton, coal, iron, and petroleum have, time and time again, exerted a controlling influence in world politics, so sugar, as an item of international trade, was one of the important factors leading up to the separation of the colonies from England.

THE FOREST RESOURCES OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

H. N. WHITFORD AND R. D. CRAIG. **Forests of British Columbia.** viii and 409 pp.; maps, ill., index. Commission of Conservation, Canada. Ottawa, 1918. 10 x 6½ inches.

The province of British Columbia comprises about 355,000 square miles of territory and contains some of the most magnificent coniferous forests in the world. Owing to differences in topography and climate, however, the vegetation varies greatly—from almost luxuriant forest in the southern coastal region to semi-arid cactus and sagebrush growth on the interior plateaus—and there are approximately 200,000 square miles of country which are incapable of producing forests of commercial value.

British Columbia has been described as a "sea of mountains," and it has been estimated that the average elevation of the land surface for the province is over 3,500 feet. Considered from a physiographic standpoint three great montane regions or "belts," roughly paralleling the seacoast, are to be distinguished: the Western, Central, and Eastern Belts. Each of these belts is further subdivided into two or more mountain or plateau systems, and these, in turn, into specific ranges, groups, or plateaus. The Western Belt comprises (a) the Insular System, embracing the mountains on the islands adjoining the mainland; and (b) the Pacific System, embracing the Cascade Mountains (a small area lying east of the Fraser River) and the Coast Mountains (including the Bulkley Mountains), together with certain unnamed mountains, on the mainland. The Central Belt comprises (a) the Interior System, embracing the Fraser and Nechako plateaus and certain unnamed mountains and plateaus; (b) the Cassiar System, embracing the Stikine and Babine Mountains and certain unnamed mountains; and (c) the southern portion of the Yukon System, embracing the Yukon Mountains and various unnamed mountains and plateaus. The Eastern Belt comprises (a) the Rockies System, here being composed of the Rocky Mountains, and (b) the Columbia System, embracing the Selkirk, Monashee, and Cariboo Mountains. In addition to these various montane regions and systems, there are distinguished four great intermontane valleys or trenches: (a) the Coastal Trench, lying between the Insular System and the Pacific System; (b) the Selkirk Trench, separating the Monashee from the Selkirk Mountains; (c) the Purcell Trench, cutting lengthwise through the Selkirk Mountains; and (d) the Rocky Mountain Trench, separating the Eastern Belt from the Central. These various physiographic features, discussed in some detail, are clearly brought out on an accompanying map (for the southern portion of the province compare R. A. Daly's map accompanying